CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE JARVIS CREEK DEVELOPMENT, HILTON HEAD ISLAND, BEAUFORT COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 392

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ABSTRACT

This report provides the results of a cultural resources investigation of 9.6 acres of land situated on Hilton Head Island in Beaufort County, South Carolina. The study was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Mr. Tom Jacoby of Jarvis Creek Development Company. The study is in anticipation of the construction of a housing development on the tract and is intended to assist the company comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800, as well as the Town of Hilton Head Island's Ordinance 90-16.

This survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project area. The proposed undertaking will require clearing, grubbing, and grading along with the construction of both underground utilities as well as above ground structures. These actions have the potential to damage or destroy archaeological sites which may in the project tract. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 1.0 mile around the proposed site was assumed.

Consultation with the S.C. Department of Archives and History revealed one site (20000916-Honey Horn Plantation). This site is located on the north side of Jarvis Creek, across from the current project area. This property has been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology revealed twenty-seven previously identified sites.

Of these sites thirteen were recommended potentially eligible, one was recommended eligible, and thirteen were recommended not eligible for the National Register.

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals running approximately southwest to northeast through the southeastern portion of the project area. Shovel tests were excavated to the north toward Jarvis Creek. Whithin 150 feet of the creek, shovel testing was performed at 50-foot intervals. In addition along Jarvis Creek, nine transects were placed at 50-foot intervals, with shovel tests heading south at 50-foot intervals for 150 feet. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 103 shovel tests were excavated along 19 transects.

As a result of these investigations no archaeological sites were found within the survey tract.

A survey of public roads within 1.0 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. No such structures were found.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during construction. Construction crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until

they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tom Jacoby of the Jarvis Creek Development Company in Hilton Head, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist the Jarvis Creek Development Company comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800 as well as Town of Hilton Head Island Ordinance 90-16.

The project site consists of a 9.6 acre tract proposed to be used for the construction of a housing development on Hilton Head Island (Figure 1). The survey area is irregular in shape with the southeastern portion bordering U.S. 278 (Cross Island Parkway) and the northern portion along Jarvis Creek (Figure 2).

The tract consists of fairly flat areas with a slight decrease in elevation toward the marsh. The survey encountered a second growth of pines and hardwoods with some thick areas of undergrowth. The surrounding area is still fairly rural with no new neighborhoods within sight of the project area.

The tract, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used for construction of a housing development. This work will require the construction of utilities, such as electrical lines and sewer, as well as an expanded road system when development begins. Construction will also involve activities associated with home sites. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to cause extensive damage to any archaeological resources which may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Hilton Head Island.

We were requested by Mr. Brian Campanella to provide a technical and budgetary proposal for the survey on September 19 2003. This proposal was accepted on October 2 and work began on October 8, 2003.

Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology by Chicora Foundation. As a result of that work, twenty-seven sites were identified within the APE (see Figure 1).

In addition, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. Although a county-wide architectural survey was performed for Beaufort County, that work excluded Hilton Head Island because of its extensive development (Harvey et al. 1998). However, the GIS did reveal one property (20000916-Honey Horn Plantation) which has been determined eligible for the National Register.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on October 8-9, 2003 by Mr. Tom Covington and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. The architectural survey of the project APE was conducted at the same time. Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from October 13-16, 2003.

Table 1.
Previously identified sites in the project area.

SITE	DESCRIPTION	ELIGIBILITY	REFERENCE
38BU843	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU844	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU845	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU846	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU847	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU848	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU849	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU850	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU857	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Rust and Poplin 1996
38BU858	Shell midden	Potentially eligible	Trinkley 1987
38BU870	Honey Horn Church Cemetery	Eligible	Trinkley 1987; Johnson 1989
38BU900	Shell midden	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU901	Shell midden, Early-Late Woodland and 19th-20th century domestic scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU902	Shell scatter and 20th century domestic scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU903	20th century domestic	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU904	Middle-Late Woodland scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU905	Middle-Late Woodland camp/village	Potentially eligible	Johnson 1987 and 1989; Kennedy et al. 1993; Gunn et al. 1995
38BU910	Middle-Late Woodland midden scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987 and 1989
38BU911	Shell scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU912	Shell midden	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU913	19th-20th century domestic scatter	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU915	Prehistoric sherds	Recommended not eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU923	19th century domestic scatter	Potentially eligible	Johnson 1987
38BU1165	Honey Horn Plantation	Eligible	Trinkley 1987; Johnson 1989
38BU1307	Historic and Prehsitoric scatter	Recommended not eligible	None
38BU1646	Middle-Late Woodland and Mississippian scatter	Recommended not eligible	Eubanks and Harvey 1996
38BU1647	Middle-Late Woodland scatter	Recommended not eligible	Eubanks and Harvey 1996

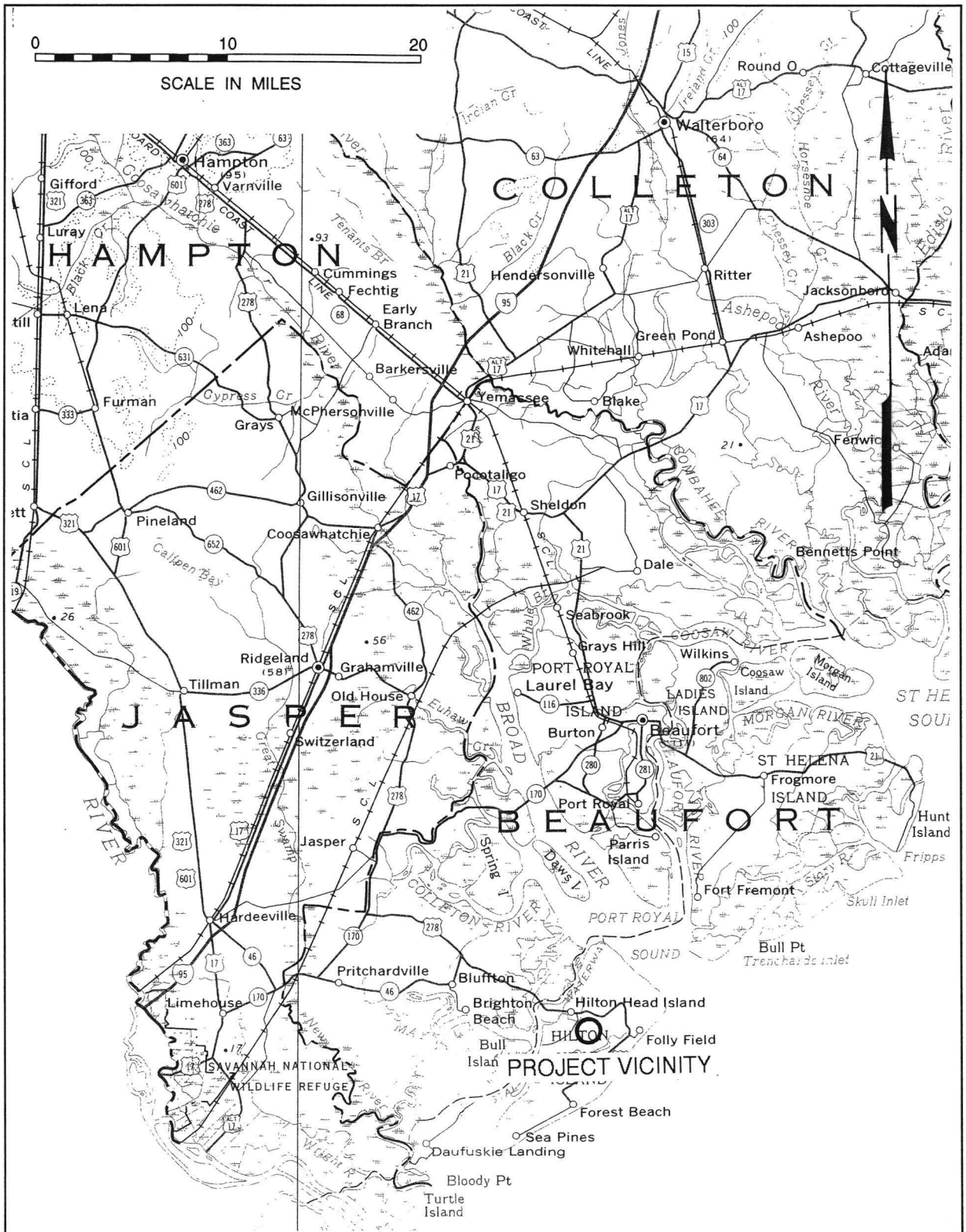

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Beaufort County (map is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

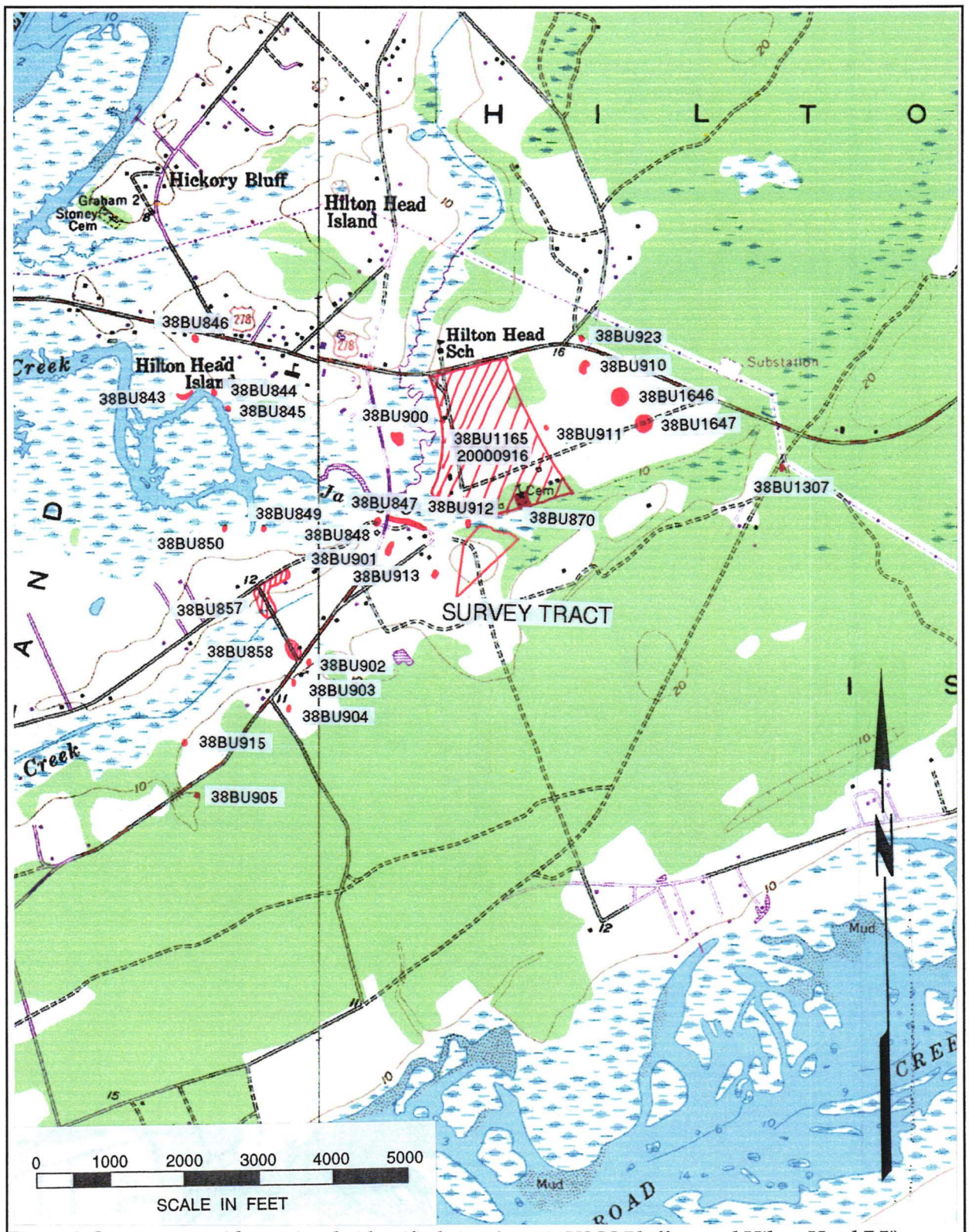

Figure 2. Survey area with previously identified sites (map is USGS Bluffton and Hilton Head 7.5').

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Beaufort County is located in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the south and southeast by the Atlantic Ocean, to the east by St. Helena Sound, to the north and northeast by the Combahee River, to the west by Jasper and Colleton counties, and portions of the New and Broad rivers. The mainland primarily consists of nearly level lowlands and low ridges. Elevations range from about sea level to slightly over 100 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) (Mathews et al. 1980:134-135).

Hilton Head is a sea island located between Port Royal Sound to the north and Daufuskie Island to the south. The island is separated from Daufuskie by Calibogue Sound and from the mainland by a narrow band of tidal marsh and Skull Creek. Between Hilton Head Island and the mainland are several smaller islands, including Pinckney and Jenkins islands. Hilton Head is about 11.5 miles in length and has a maximum width of 6.8 miles, yielding 19,460 acres of highland and 2400 acres of marsh.

Hilton Head is situated in the Sea Island section of South Carolina's Coastal Plain province. The coastal plain consists of the unconsolidated sands, clays, and soft limestones found from the fall line eastward to the Atlantic Ocean, an area of more than 20,000 square miles or about two-thirds of the State (Cooke 1936:1-3). Elevations range from just above sea level on the coast and up to 21 feet at the top of the highest beach ridges on the island, to about 600 feet mean sea level (MSL) adjacent to the Piedmont province. The coastal plain is drained by three large through-flowing rivers – the Pee Dee, Santee, and Savannah – as well as by numerous smaller rivers and streams. On Hilton Head Island, there are two major drainages, Broad Creek which flows almost due west into Calibogue Sound, and Jarvis Creek which empties into Mackay Creek just north of Broad Creek.

From Bull Bay southward, the coast is atypical of the northern coastline. The area is

Figure 3. View of pines and hardwoods within the tract.

characterized by low-lying, sandy islands bordered by salt marsh. Brown (1975) classes these islands as either Beach Ridge or Transgressive, with the Transgressive barrier islands being straight, thin pockets of sand which are rapidly retreating landward with erosion rates of up to 1600 feet since 1939. The Beach Ridge barrier islands, however, are more common and consist of islands such as Kiawah and Hilton Head. They are characterized by a bulbous updrift (or northern) end.

Kana (1984) discusses the coastal processes which result in the formation of barrier islands, noting that the barrier island system includes tidal inlets at each end of the barrier with the central part of the island tending to be arcuate in shape while the ends of the island tend to be broken. Hilton Head has the typical central bulge caused by sand wrapping around the tidal delta and then depositing midway down the island. Further, the south end has an accreting spit where sand is building out the shoreline. The central part of the island, however, has experienced a 25-year erosion trend averaging 3 to 10 feet (0.9 to 3 meters) a year (Kana 1984:11-12; see also U.S. Army Corps of Engineers 1971). More recent work by Kana et al. (1986) reaffirms considerable shoreline reorientation.

Hilton Head Island, however, is also a different shape than most of the other islands since it has a Pleistocene core with a Holocene beach ridge fringe. To understand fully the significance of this situation, it is important to realize that technically the sea islands and the barrier islands are different from a historical perspective. The classic sea islands of colonial and antebellum fame (such as James, St. Helena, and Sapelo islands) are erosional remnants of coastal sand bodies deposited during the Pleistocene high sea level stands. They are crudely elongate, parallel to the present day shoreline, and rectangular in outline. Their topography is characterized by gentle slopes, and poorly defined ridges and swales. Maximum elevations typically range from 5 to 35 feet (1.5 to 10.7 meters) MSL. Typical barrier islands include Pawleys, Kiawah, and Hunting islands. There are, in addition, marsh islands, such as Morris and St. Phillips islands, composed of isolated or widely spaced Holocene sand ridges surrounded by Holocene salt marsh (Mathews et al. 1980).

Some islands, such as Hilton Head, Daufuskie, and St. Catherines, however, have an oceanward fringe of beach dune ridges which were constructed during the Holocene high sea level stands (Mathews et al. 1980:65-71; Ziegler 1959). Ziegler (1959:Figure 6) suggests that Hilton Head Island is composed of several sea or erosion remnant islands, joined together by recent Holocene deposits.

Climate

In the early nineteenth century the Beaufort climate was described as "one of the healthiest" (Mills 1972[1826]:377), although Thomas Chaplin's antebellum journal describing life at nearby Tombee Plantation on St. Helena Island presents an entirely different picture (Rosengarten 1987). In 1864 Charlotte Forten wrote that "yellow fever prevailed to an alarming extent, and that, indeed the manufacture of coffins was the only business that was at all flourishing (Forten 1864:588). Even a cursory review of death certificates for the 1920s reveals that the low country was still a foreboding place. Brights disease, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, and malaria were all more common causes of death than "old age."

The major climatic controls of the area are latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracks of migratory cyclones. The project's latitude of about 32°20'N places it on the edge of the balmy subtropical climate typical of Florida. As a result, there are relatively short, mild winters and long, warm, humid summers. The large amount of nearby warm ocean water surface produces a maritime climate, which tends to moderate both the cold and hot weather. The Appalachian Mountains, about 220 miles to the northwest, block shallow cold air masses from the northwest,

Figure 4. View of the Jarvis Creek marsh north of the project tract.

moderating them before they reach the sea islands (Landers 1970:2-3; Mathews et al. 1980:46).

Maximum daily temperatures in the summer tend to be near or above 90°F and the minimum daily temperatures tend to be about 68°F. The summer water temperatures average 83°F. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered shatters and thunderstorms in the summer. Winter has average daily maximum and minimum temperatures of 63°F and 38°F respectively. Precipitation is in the form of rain associated with fronts and cyclones; snow is uncommon (Janiskee and Bell 1980:1-2).

The average yearly precipitation is 49.4 inches, with 34 inches occurring from April through October, the growing season for most low country crops. Hilton Head Island has approximately 285 frost free days annually (Janiskee and Bell 1980:1; Landers 1970). This mild climate, as Hilliard (1984:13) notes, is largely responsible for the presence of many southern crops, such as cotton and sugar cane.

While the temperatures on the Sea Islands are not extreme, the relative humidity is frequently high enough to produce muggy conditions in the summer and dank conditions in the winter. Relative humidity ranges from about 63-89% in the summer to 58-83% in the winter. The highest relative humidity occurs in the morning and as the temperature increases, the humidity tends to decline (Landers 1970:11; Mathews et al. 1980:46).

The coastal area is at a moderately high risk of tropical storms, with 169 hurricanes being documented from 1686 through 1972 (Mathews et al. 1980:56). The last Category 5 hurricane which hit this area was the August 27, 1893 storm which had winds of 120 miles per hour and a storm surge of 17 to 19.5 feet. Over 1,000 people in South Carolina were reported killed by this storm (Mathews et al. 1980:55). Other notable historic storms have occurred in 1700, 1752, 1804, 1813, and 1885.

Geology and Soils

The coastal region is covered in sands and clays originally derived from the Appalachian Mountains and which are organized into coastal, fluvial, and aeolian deposits. These were transported to the coast during the Quaternary period and were deposited on bedrock of the Mesozoic Era and Tertiary period. These sedimentary bedrock formations are only occasionally exposed on the coast, although they frequently outcrop along the fall line (Mathews et al. 1980:2). The bedrock in the Beaufort area is below a level of 1640 feet (Smith 1933:21).

The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar terraces parallel to the coast. These terraces have elevations ranging from 215 feet down to sea level. The terraces, representing previous sea floors, were apparently formed at high stands of the fluctuating, though falling, Atlantic Ocean and consist chiefly of sand and clay (Cooke 1936). More recently, research by Colquhoun (1969) has refined the theory of formation processes, suggesting a more complex origin involving both erosional and depositional processes operating during marine transgressions and regression.

The mainland soils are Pleistocene in age and tend to have more distinct horizon development and diversity than the younger soils of the Sea Islands. Sandy to loamy soils predominate in the level to gently sloping mainland areas. The island soils are less diverse and less well developed, frequently lacking a well-defined B horizon. Organic matter is low and the soils tend to be acidic. The Holocene deposits typical of barrier islands and found as a fringe on some sea islands, consist almost entirely of quartz sand which exhibits little organic matter. Tidal marsh soils are Holocene in age and consist of fine sands, clay, and organic matter deposited over older Pleistocene sands. The soils are frequently covered by up to 2 feet of salt water during high tide. These organic soils usually have two distinct layers. The top few inches are subject to aeration as well as leaching and therefore are a dark brown color. The lower levels, however, consist of reduced compounds resulting from decomposition of organic compounds and are black. The pH of these marsh soils is neutral to slightly alkaline (Mathews et al. 1980:39-44).

Most of Hilton Head is dominated by the broad soil series of Wando-Seabrook-Seewee soils. These soils can range from moderately well drained to somewhat poorly drained soils that are sandy throughout (Stuck 1980). The survey track, however, is dominated by two soil types with one, Wando, being excessively drained and the other, Ridgeland, somewhat poorly drained.

Wando fine sands are found on most of the survey area. These soils have an Ap horizon of dark brown (10YR4/3) fine sand to 0.8 foot over a C1 horizon of brown (10YR5/3) fine sand to a depth of 1.6 feet.

Also found on the tract, Ridgeland fine sands have an Ap horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) fine sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a dark reddish brown (5YR3/2) fine sand to over 1.3 feet.

Floristics

Hilton Head Island today exhibits four major ecosystems: the coastal marine ecosystem where land has unobstructed access to ocean, the maritime ecosystem which consists of the upland forest area of the island, the estuarine ecosystem of deep water tidal habitats, and the palustrine ecosystem which consists of essentially fresh water, non-tidal wetlands (Sandifer et al. 1980:7-9).

Mathews et al. (1980:155) note that the most significant ecosystem on Hilton Head Island is the maritime forest community. This maritime ecosystem is defined most simply as all upland areas located on barrier islands, limited on the ocean side by tidal marshes. On sea islands the distinction between the maritime forest community and an upland ecosystem (essentially found on the mainland) becomes blurred. Sandifer et al. (1980:108-109) define four subsystems, including the sand spits and bars, dunes, transition shrub, and maritime forest. Of these, only the maritime forest subsystem is likely to have been significant to either the prehistoric or historic occupants. While this subsystem is frequently characterized by the dominance of live oak and the presence of salt spray, these are less noticeable on the sea islands than they are on the narrower barrier islands (Sandifer et al. 1980:120).

The barrier islands may contain communities of oak-pine, oak-palmetto-pine, oak-magnolia, palmetto, or low oak woods. The sea islands, being more mesic or xeric, tend to

evidence old field communities, pine-mixed hardwoods communities, pine forest communities, or mixed hardwood communities (Sandifer et al. 1980:120-121, 437).

Several areas of Hilton Head evidence upland mesic hardwoods, also known as "oak-hickory forests" (Braun 1950). These forests contain significant quantities of mockernut hickory as well as pignut hickory, both economically significant to the aboriginal inhabitants. Other areas are more likely to be classified as Braun's (1950:284-289) pine or pine-oak forest communities. Wenger (1968) notes that the presence of loblolly and shortleaf pines is common on coastal plain sites where they are a significant sub-climax aspect of the plan succession toward a hardwood climax. Longleaf pine forests were likewise a common sight (Croker 1979).

Robert Mills, discussing Beaufort District in the early nineteenth century, stated:

> besides a fine growth of pine, we have the cypress, red cedar, and live oak . . . white oak, red oak, and several other oaks, hickory, plum, palmetto, magnolia, poplar, beech, birch, ash, dogwood, black mulberry, etc. Of fruit trees we have the orange, sweet and sour, peach, nectarine, fig, cherry (Mills 1972[1826]:377).

He also cautioned, however, that "some parts of the district are beginning already to experience a want of timber, even for common purposes" (Mills 1972[1826]:383) and suggested that at least 25% of a plantation's acreage should be reserved for woods.

Although much modified by extensive agriculture, at least some of this more native vegetation is still suggested. There are areas of standing water swamp, as well as remnant areas of maritime forest.

A mid-nineteenth century map shows areas of the island as "cultivated," "old fields," "swamp ground," "thick woods Pine tree and live oak," "pines, live oaks and few other kind," and "very thick woods" (National Archives RG77, Map I52), giving a clear impression of the diversity caused by over a century of intensive agriculture. Trees mentioned on the map show the mingling of needle evergreen and broadleaf evergreen species. Pine was apparently a common species. A description of the island, based on a visit from March through May 1863, states,

> [t]he characteristic trees are the live oak . . . . Besides these, are the pine, the red and white oak, the cedar, the bay, the gum, the maple, and the ash. The soil is luxuriant with an undergrowth of impenetrable vines (Anonymous 1863:294-295).

This and other accounts (Eldridge 1893:69) suggest that the vegetation on Hilton Head was already intensively affected by farming and logging as early as the nineteenth century.

The estuarine ecosystem in the Hilton Head vicinity, including the current survey area, includes those areas of deep-water tidal habitats and adjacent tidal wetlands. Salinity may range from 0.5 ppt at the head of an estuary to 30 ppt where it comes in contact with the ocean. Estuarine systems are influenced by ocean tides, precipitation, fresh water runoff from the upland areas, evaporation, and wind. The tidal range for Hilton Head island is 6.6 to 7.8 feet, indicative of an area swept by moderately strong tidal currents. The system may be subdivided into two major components: subtidal and intertidal (Sandifer et al. 1980:158-159). These estuarine systems are extremely important to our understanding of prehistoric occupation because they naturally contain such high biomass (Thompson 1972:9). The estuarine are contributes vascular flora used for basket making, as well as mammals, birds, fish (over 107 species), and shellfish.

The last environment to be briefly discussed is the freshwater palustrine ecosystem, which includes all wetland systems, such as swamps, bays, savannas, pocosins, and creeks, where the salinities measure less than 0.5 ppt. The palustrine ecosystem is diverse, although not well studied (Sandifer et al. 1980:295). A number of forest types are found in the palustrine areas which attract a variety of terrestrial mammals. On Hilton Head the typical vegetation consists of red maple, swamp tupelo, sweet gum, red bay, cypress, and various hollies. Also found are wading birds and reptiles. it seems likely that these freshwater environs were of particular importance to the prehistoric occupants, but probably of limited importance to historic occupants (who tended to describe them in the nineteenth century as "impenetrable swamps").

Much of the survey area exhibits a second growth of mixed hardwood and pine vegetation, although there are areas where the lowland forest is more open.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNTHESIS

There have been a number of studies prepared for the Beaufort area, and Derting et al. (1991:47-77) list 225 in their bibliography of South Carolina archaeology. Previous work in the immediate area includes a reconnaissance survey of the coastal portions of Hilton Head Island (Trinkley 1987), as well as detailed data recovery excavations at a series of shell middens on Old House Creek (Trinkley and Adams 1994). There have also been several compliance projects close to the current project area including surveys for the Cross Island Corridor (U.S. 278) (Johnson 1987 and 1989; Gunn et al. 1995), for the Indigo Run Development (Kennedy et al. 1993), and for the Honey Horn Tract (Eubanks and Harvey 1996).

For the historic period there are an equal number of studies that provide broad overviews. Harvey and his colleagues provide a general view of Beaufort County, although no information is provided on Hilton Head Island (Harvey et al. 1998). While not as detailed as it might be, Holmgren (1959) provides an excellent introduction to the history of Hilton Head. It has been supplemented by a variety of plantation or area specific studies, such as the work at the freedmen village of Mitchelville (Trinkley 1986), the examination of a portion of Cotton Hope Plantation (Trinkley 1990), the excavations at Seabrook Plantation (Campo et al. 1998) or the series of studies on the Stoney/Baynard plantation (Adams and Trinkley 1991, Adams et al. 1995, Trinkley 1996).

Prehistoric Synthesis

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Goodyear et al. 1989; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Sea level during much of this period is expected to have been as much as 65 feet lower than present, so many sites may be inundated (Flint 1971). Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10). Brooks and Scurry note that:

> Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically

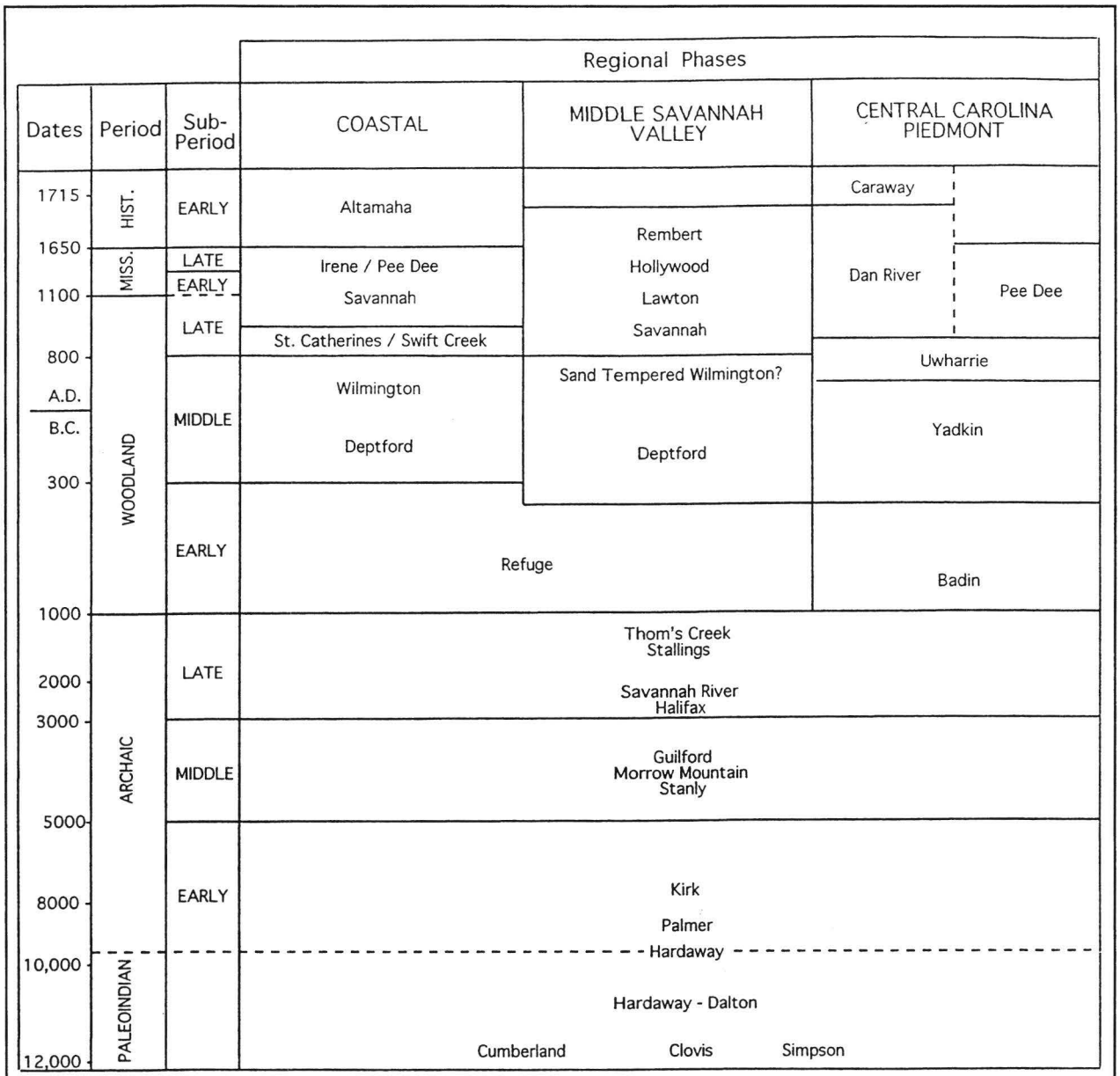

Figure 5. Generalized culture periods and chronology for different regions of South Carolina.

small, relatively few in number and contain low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

Alternatively, the general sparsity of Archaic sites in the coastal zone may be the result of a more attractive environment inland adjacent to the floodplain swamps of major drainages. Of course, this is not necessarily an alternative

explanation, since coastal Archaic sites may represent only a small segment in the total settlement system.

In the Coastal Plain of the South Carolina there is an increase in the quantity of Early Archaic remains, probably associated with an increase in population and associated increase in the intensity of occupation. While Hardaway and Dalton points are typically found as isolated specimens along riverine environments, remains from the following Palmer phase are not only more common, but are also found in both riverine and interriverine settings. Kirks are likewise common in the coastal plain (Goodyear et al. 1979).

The two primary Middle Archaic phases found in the coastal plain are the Morrow Mountain and Guilford (the Stanly and Halifax complexes identified by Coe are rarely encountered). Our best information on the Middle Woodland comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work in the Little Tennessee River Valley. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and South Carolina, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued the intensive exploitation of the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups. The bulk of our data for this period, however, comes from work in the Uwharrie region of North Carolina.

The Woodland period begins by definition with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast (the introduction of pottery, and hence the beginning of the Woodland period, occurs much later in the Piedmont of South Carolina). It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) pottery. The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia.

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens, small, sparse shell middens; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland, sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Coastal Plain, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are

strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1976). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina. The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are found.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25-26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Research at 38FL249 on the Roche Carolina tract in northern Florence County revealed an assemblage including Badin, Yadkin, and Wilmington wares (Trinkley et al. 1993:85-102). Anderson et al. (1982:299-302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example,

rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1990:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The South Appalachian Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest phases include the Savannah and Pee Dee (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

Historic Synopsis

The British Proprietory Period

British influence in the New World began in the fifteenth century with the Cabot voyages, but the southern coast did not attract serious attention until King Charles II granted Carolina to the Lords Proprietors in 1663. In August 1663 William Hilton sailed from Barbados to explore the Carolina territory, spending a great deal of time in the Port Royal area (Holmgren 1959). Almost chosen for the first English colony, Hilton Head Island was passed over by Sir John Yeamans in favor of the more protected Charles Town site on the west bank of the Ashley River in 1670 (Clowse 1971:23-24; Holmgren 1959:39).

Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lords Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through the mercantile system, which was designed to profit the mother country by providing raw materials unavailable in England (Clowse 1971). Charleston was settled by English citizens, including a number from Barbados, and by Huguenot refugees. Black slaves were brought directly from Africa, as well as Barbados.

The Charleston settlement was moved from the mouth of the Ashley River to the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers in 1680, but the colony was a thorough disappointment to the Proprietors. It failed to grow as expected, did not return the anticipated profit, and failed to evidence workable local government (Ferris 1968:124-125). The early economy was based almost exclusively on Indian trade, naval stores, lumber, and cattle. Rice began emerging as a money crop in the late seventeenth century, but did not markedly improve the economic well-being of the colony until the eighteenth century (Clowse 1971).

Meanwhile, Scottish Covenanters under

Lord Cardross established Stuart's Town on Scot's Island (Port Royal) in 1684, where it existed for four years until destroyed by the Spanish. It was not until 1698 that the area was again occupied by the English. Both John Stuart and Major Robert Daniell took possession of lands on St. Helena and Port Royal islands. The town of Beaufort was founded in 1711 although it was not immediately settled.

While most of the Beaufort Indian groups were persuaded to move to Polawana Island in 1712, the Yemassee, part of the Creek Confederacy, revolted in 1715. By 1718 the Yemassee were defeated and forced southward to Spanish protection. Consequently, the Beaufort area, known as St. Helena Parish, Granville County, was for the first time relatively safe from both the Spanish and the Indians. The Yemassee, however, continued occasional raids into South Carolina, such as the 1728 destruction of the Passage Fort at Bloody Point on Daufuskie Island (Starr 1984:16). In the same year the English raid on St. Augustine succeeded in breaking the Spanish influence and the remnant Indian groups made peace with the English. The results for the Beaufort area, however, were mixed. While there was a semblance of peace, frontier settlements were largely deserted, population growth was slow, and the Indian trade was diverted from Beaufort to Savannah.

The British Colonial Period

Although peace marked the Carolina colony, the Proprietors continued to have disputes with the populace, primarily over the colony's economic stagnation and deterioration. In 1727 the colony's government virtually broke down when the Council and the Commons were unable to agree on legislation to provide more bills of credit (Clowse 1971:238). This, coupled with the disastrous depression of 1728, brought the colony to the brink of mob violence. Clowse notes that the "initial step toward aiding South Carolina came when the proprietors were eliminated" in 1720 (Clowse 1971:241).

While South Carolina's economic woes were far from solved by this transfer, the Crown's Board of Trade began taking steps to remedy many of the problems. A new naval store law was passed in 1729 with possible advantages accruing to South Carolina. In 1730 the Parliament opened Carolina rice trade with markets in Spain and Portugal. The Board of Trade also dealt with the problem of the colony's financial solvency (Clowse 1971:245-247). Clowse notes that these changes, coupled with new land policies, "allowed the colony to go into an era of unprecedented expansion" (Clowse 1971:249). South Carolina's position was buttressed by the settlement of Georgia in 1733.

By 1730 the colony's population had risen to about 30,000 individuals, 20,000 of whom were black slaves (Clowse 1971:Table 1). The majority of these slaves were used in South Carolina's expanding rice industry. In the 1730 harvest year 48,155 barrels of rice were reported, up 15,771 barrels or 33% from the previous year (Clowse 1971:Table 3). Although rice was grown in the Beaufort area, it did not become a major crop in South Carolina until after the Revolutionary War. Rice was never a significant crop on the Beaufort Sea Islands, where ranch farming was favored because of its economic returns and favorable climate (Starr 1984:26-27). Elsewhere, however, rice monoculture shaped the social, political, and economic systems which produced and perpetuated the coastal plantation system prior to the rise of cotton culture.

Although indigo was known in the Carolina colony as early as 1669 and was being planted the following year, it was not until the 1740s that it became a major cash crop (Huneycutt 1949). While indigo was difficult to process, its success was partially due to it being complementary to rice. Huneycutt notes that planters were "able to 'dovetail' the work season of the two crops so that a single gang of slaves could cultivate both staples" (Huneycutt 1949:18). Indigo continued to be the main cash crop of South Carolina until the Revolutionary War

fatally disrupted the industry.

During the Revolutionary War the British occupied Charleston for over two and one-half years (1780-1782). A post was established in Beaufort to coordinate forays into the inland waterways after Prevost's retreat from the Battle of Stono Ferry (Federal Writer's Project 1938:7; Rowland 1978:288). British earthworks were established around Port Royal and on Ladys Island (Rowland 1978:290). The removal of the royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos during and after the war with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34).

The Antebellum Period

While freed of Britain and her mercantilism, the new United States found its economy thoroughly disrupted. There was no longer a bounty on indigo, and in fact Britain encouraged competition from the British and French West Indies and India "to embarrass her former colonies" (Huneycutt 1949:44). As a consequence the economy shifted to tidewater rice production and cotton agriculture. Lepionka notes that "long staple cotton of the Sea Islands was of far higher value than the common variety (60 cents a pound compared to 15 cents a pound in the late 1830s) and this became the major cash crop of the coastal islands" (Lepionka et al. 1983:20). It was cotton, in the Beaufort area, that brought a full establishment of the plantation economy. Lepionka concisely states that:

> [t]he cities of Charleston and Savannah and numerous smaller towns such as Beaufort and Georgetown were supported in their considerable splendor on this wealth . . . . An aristocratic planter class was created, but was based on the essential labor of black slavery without which the plantation economy could not function. Consequently, the demographic pattern of a black majority first established in colonial times was reinforced (Lepionka et al. 1983:21).

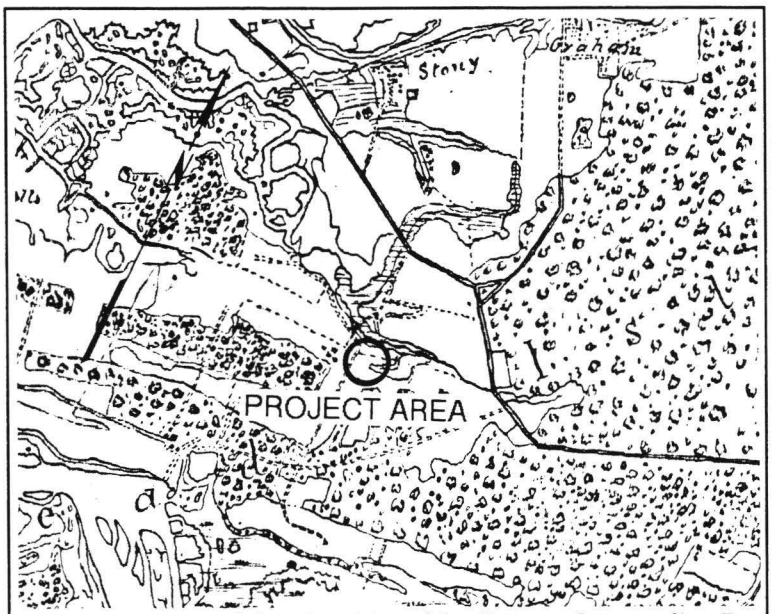

Figure 6. Portion of the 1861 *Map of the Country Surrounding Port Royal Compiled for Brigt. General T.W. Sherman*, showing the project area.

Mills, in 1826, provides a thorough commentary on the Beaufort District noting that:

> Beaufort is admirably situated for commerce, possessing one of the finest ports and spacious harbors in the world . . . . There is no district in the state, either better watered, of more extended navigation, or possessing a larger portion of rich land, than Beaufort: more than one half of the territory is rich swamp land, capable of being improved so as to

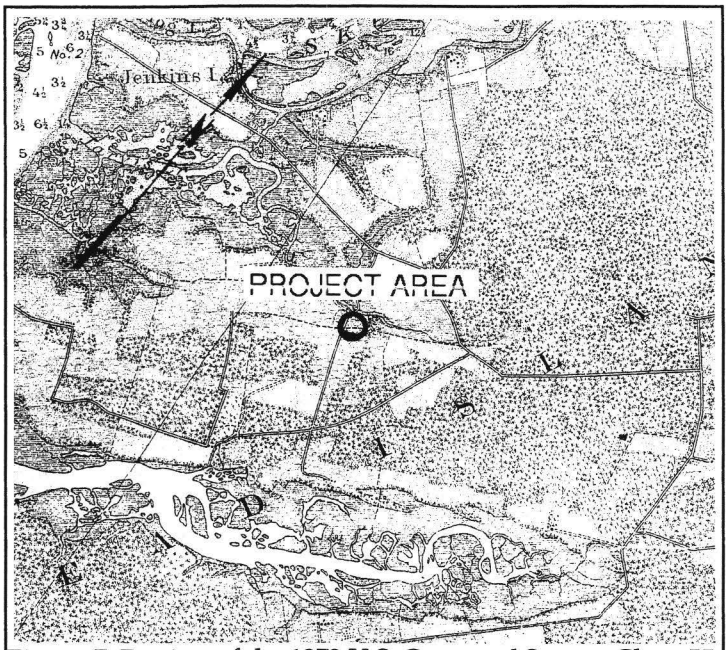

Figure 7. Portion of the 1873 U.S. Coast and Survey Chart 55, showing the project area.

yield abundantly (Mills 1972 [1826]:367).

Describing the Beaufort islands, Mills comments that they were "beautiful to the eye, rich in production, and withal salubrious" (Mills 1972 [1826]:372). Land prices ranged from $60 an acre for the best, $30 for "second quality," and as low as 25 cents for the "inferior" lands. Grain and sugarcane were cultivated in small quantities for home use while:

> [t]he principal attention of the planter is . . . devoted to the cultivation of cotton and rice, especially the former. The sea islands, or salt water lands, yield cotton of the finest staple, which commands the highest price in market; it has been no uncommon circumstance for such cotton to bring $1 a pound. In favorable seasons, or particular spots, nearly 300 weight has been raised from an acre, and an active field hand can cultivate upwards of four acres, exclusive of one acre and half of corn and ground provisions (Mills 1972 [1826]:368).

Reference to the 1860 agricultural census reveals that of the 891,228 acres of farmland, 274,015 (30.7%) were improved. In contrast, only 28% of the State's total farmland was improved, and only 17% of the neighboring Colleton District's farm land was improved. Even in wealthy Charleston District only 17.8% of the farm land was improved (Kennedy 1864:128-129). The cash value of Beaufort farms was

Figure 8. Portion of the 1877 *Map Showing the Location of the Lands of the South Carolina Land and Improvement Company,* showing the project area.

$9,900,652, while the state average by county was only $4,655,083. The value of Beaufort farms was greater than any other district in the state for that year, and only Georgetown listed a greater cash value of farming implements and machinery (perhaps reflecting the more specialized equipment needed for rice production).

The record of wealth and prosperity, such as it was, is tempered by the realization that it was based on the racial imbalance typical of Southern slavery. In 1820 there were 32,199 people enumerated in Beaufort District, 84.9% of whom were black (Mills 1972 [1826]:372). While the 1850 population had risen to 38,805, the racial breakdown had changed little, with 84.7% being black (83.2% were slaves). Thus, while the statewide ratio of free white to black slave was 1:1.4, the Beaufort ratio was 1:5.4 (DeBow 1853:338).

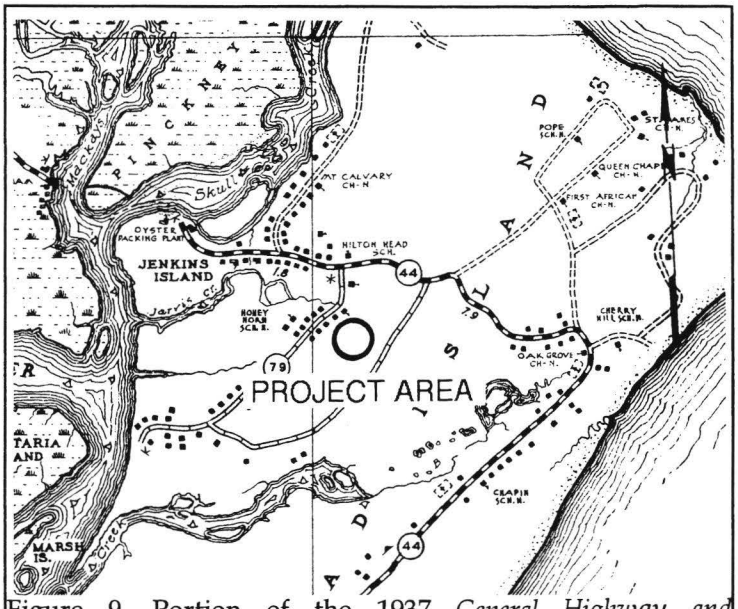

Figure 9. Portion of the 1937 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Beaufort County* showing the project area.

Civil War and the Postbellum

Hilton Head Island fell to Union forces on November 7, 1861 and was occupied by the Expeditionary Corps under the direction of General T.W. Sherman. Beaufort, deserted by the Confederate troops and the white towns-people, was occupied by the Union forces several weeks later. A single white person, who remained loyal to the Federal government, was found on Ladys Island (Johnson 1969:189). Hilton Head became the Headquarters for the Department of the South and served as the staging area for a variety of military campaigns. A brief sketch of this period, generally accurate, is provided by Carse (1981). As a result of Hilton Head and Beaufort's early occupation by Union forces, all of the plantations fell to military occupation, a large number of blacks flocked to the area, and a "Department of Experiments" was born. An excellent account of the "Port Royal Experiment" is provided by Rose (1964), while the land policies on St. Helena are explored by McGuire (1985).

Trinkley (1986) has examined the freedmen village of Mitchelville on Hilton Head Island. One result of the Mitchelville work was to document how little is actually known about the black heritage and postbellum history of the sea islands. Even the social research spearheaded by the University of North Carolina's Institute for Research in Social Science at Chapel Hill in the early twentieth century (e.g. Johnson 1969, Woofter 1930) failed to record much of the activities on islands such as Hilton Head.

McGuire (1982, 1985) provides a detailed account of the land policies in the area during the Civil War and her studies should be consulted for detailed information. In general, however, blacks slowly came to own a large proportion of the available land. Certificates of possession were eventually issued for a number of the sea island plantations (McGuire 1982:36). During the postbellum period previous owners slowly came forward to reclaim, or redeem, land confiscated by the Federal government. The 1872 redemption process was not totally successful, partially because some tracts had such low value. By the 1890s a program was established to provide owners unsuccessful at either restoration or

redemption with token compensation (McGuire 1982:77; S.C. Department of Archives and History, Secretary of State Records, Beaufort County Tax Claims, Direct Tax Compensation Book IX/2/4/3B).

During the late nineteenth century most of the sea island plantations continued as a rural, isolated agrarian communities. The new plantation owners attempted to forge an economic relationship with the free black laborers and found a multitude of problems, including the need to pay higher wages, increasing problems with the cotton boll weevil, and decreasing fertility. The letters of G.C. Hardy, the manager of the Eustis Plantation on Ladys Island in the 1870s, clearly reveal the problems faced during this period. Hardy, in his letters to Frederic Eustis, discusses the rising labor costs and the serious losses of cotton to the boll weevil (South Caroliniana Library, Frederic A. Eustis Collection).

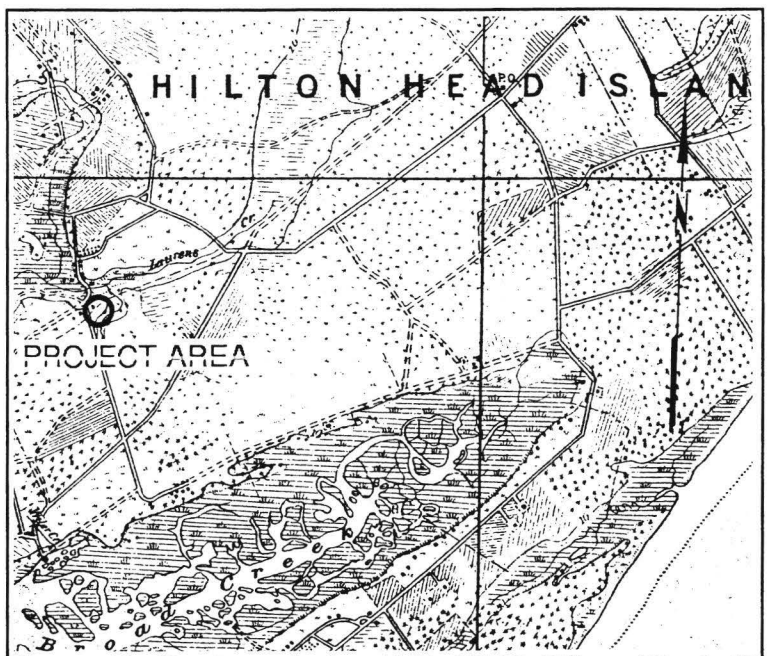

Figure 10. Portion of the 1945 USGS Hilton Head 15' topographic maps showing the project area.

In the 1870s a new form of livelihood was introduced – the mining of phosphate for fertilizer. While both land and river rock mining were conducted in South Carolina, the Beaufort area saw primarily river dredging to acquire the phosphate ore present as gravel, although land mining of phosphate nodules also took place (Mathews et al. 1980:27, 31). As the industry began to decline in the early twentieth century, blacks returned to agriculture and oyster factories.

Woofter (1930) provides information on the agricultural practices of the St. Helena blacks in the early twentieth century, noting that the population was largely stable, with most blacks remaining in the vicinity of their parents' "home" plantations (Woofter 1930:265). While islands, such as St. Helena, which were large and easily accessible began to change more rapidly during this period, the smaller, more isolated islands, such as Hilton Head, maintained very clear connections with the past which have been repeatedly documented through oral histories.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals heading north from U.S. 278 (Cross Island Parkway) which had transects placed at 100-foot intervals. Within 150 feet of Jarvis Creek to the north, shovel tests were changed to 50-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1.0 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators. Sites which appeared to be eligible or potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places would be recorded using a Garmin GPS 76 rover which tracks up to twelve satellites.

A total of 68 shovel tests were excavated along the original transects. In addition, transects were placed at 50-foot intervals along Jarvis Creek with shovel tests running south for 150 feet at 50-foot intervals to make sure no shell middens were located along the bank edge.

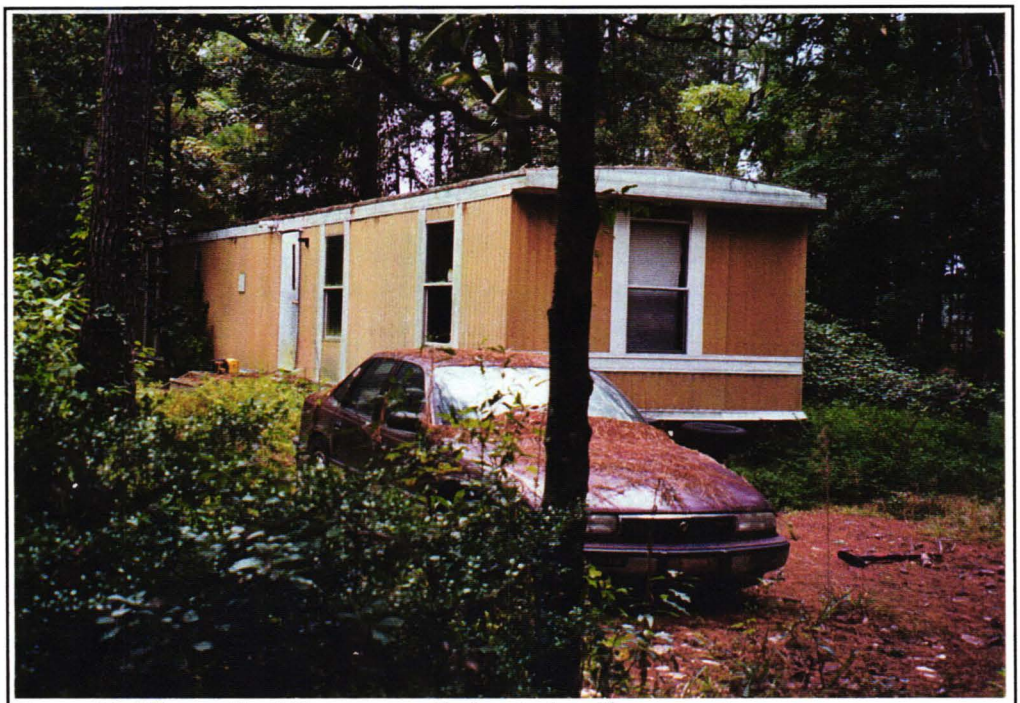

Figure 11. View of buildings currently located on the property.

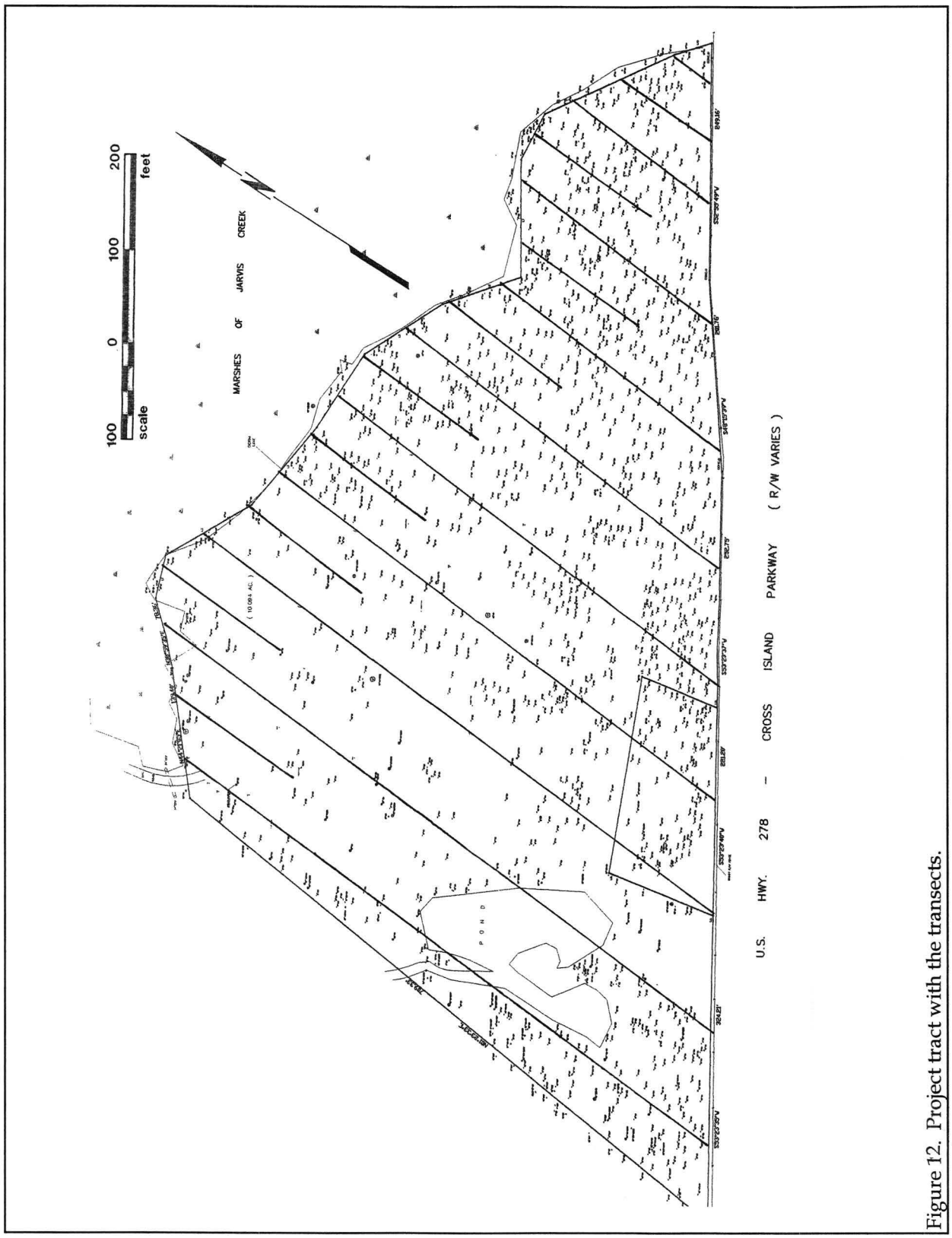

Figure 12. Project tract with the transects.

While Wando and Ridgeland fine sands were found in the project area, most of the shovel tests revealed eroded soils with a surface horizon of light grayish brown to a depth of 1.0 foot over a yellow or pale brown subsoil. Shovel tests were excavated through the A horizon to at least 0.5 foot into the subsoil to ensure that no buried sites were present.

Sites would be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the 9.6 acres failed to identify any archaeological remains. This is most likely the result of the lack of a well defined bluff edge and extensive soft marsh prior to the creek bank.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950 and which retained their integrity. Those which have undergone such extensive modifications to preclude their eligibility were not recorded.

For each identified resource an architectural survey form would be completed and at least two representative photographs would be taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The site forms for the resources identified during this study would then be submitted to the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on each archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Figure 13. View of Honey Horn Plantation from the project tract.

No additional architectural sites were identified beyond the already eligible Honey Horn Plantation (20000916). Honey Horn Plantation is a ca. 1854, 1890s, and 1930 collection of farm buildings that is eligible under Criteria A and C. The property is located just north across Jarvis Creek from the current project, however it

is unlikely that the project will affect the Honey Horn property given a line of pine trees shielding the view of the two parcels. There will likely also be a set back from the marsh edge on the project tract that will also help create a visual buffer.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of 9.6 acres of land for a housing development on Hilton Head Island, South Carolina. Activities on the tract will include extensive clearing, grubbing, grading, construction of utilities, and erection of homes. This study, conducted for Jarvis Creek Development Company, provides the results of that investigation and is intended to assist that organization comply with the historic preservation responsibilities associated with permitting the facility.

As a result of this investigation no archaeological sites were identified. This may be due to the distance from the creek, extensive soft marsh, and failure to identify a well defined bluff edge.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 1.0 mile APE. No structures were found which retained their integrity. Honey Horn Plantation is located just north of Jarvis Creek, however, the property is shielded by pine trees and in conjunction with a marsh edge set-back on the project tract, this development is unlikely to have any impact on the property.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the area during construction. As always, the utility's contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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